

Dionysius, Thrax
The grammar of Dionysios
Thrax

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GRAMMAR

OF

DIONYSIOS THRAX.

Translated from the Greek by

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THE GRAMMAR OF DIONYSIOS THRAX.

This famous little pamphlet, the first attempt at a systematic grammar made in the Western World, and for many generations a text-book in the schools of the Roman Empire, appears, I believe, now for the first time in English. Pretty nearly all that we know about the person of Dionysios is what we are told by

Suidas, who says:

"Dioxysios the Alexandrian, called the Thracian from [the native country of] his father Teros, was a disciple of Aristarchos, and a grammarian. He was a mis lather Teros, was a obsciple of Aristarcinos, and a grammarian. He was a public professor (ἐσσώστυστ) in Rome in the time of Pompey the Great, and was preceptor to Tyrannion the Elder. He composed a very large number of grammatical works, as well as set treatises and commentaries."—Cf. Max Müller, Lectures on the Science of Language, 1st Ser., p. 90 (English ed.); Lentz, Herodiani Technici Reliquiæ, Præf. p. clxvi.; Steinthal, Gesch. der Sprachw. bei den Griechen und Rümern, pp. 478, 568 sqq.

The Grammar of Dionysios was first printed (I believe, though Lersch says "zuletzt abgedruckt") in 1816, in Immanuel Bekker's Anecdota Græca (pp. 629-643) along with the scholia of Cheeroboskos, Diomedes, Melamuous, Porphyry, and Stephanos (pp. 647-972). The genuineness and authenticity of the work have been improgned, but have been defended by Lersch, Die Sprachphilosophie der Allen, Pt. II. pp. 64 sqq., and are now generally admitted. Cf. K. E. A. Schmidt, Beiträge zur Geschichte der Grammatik des Gr. und des Lat., pp. 81, 189, 216, 519.

To my very literal translation I have added a few explanatory notes which

seemed necessary, and a number of references for the convenience of persons who

may wish to pursue the subject further. - Translator.]

1. On GRAMMAR, (γραμματική).

Grammar is an experimental knowledge (ξμπειρία) of the usages of language as generally current among poets and prose writers. It is divided into six parts:

- 1°. Trained reading with due regard to Prosody.*
- 2°. Explanation according to poetical figures.
- 3°. Ready statement of dialectical peculiarities and allusions (ίστορίαι).
- 4°. Discovery of Etymology.
- 5°. An accurate account of analogies.‡

^{*} Prosody (προσωδία), in the Greek sense, includes everything designated by diacritical marks - aspiration, accentuation, quantity, and sometimes pauses. Vid. Bekker, Anecdota Græca, pp. 679 sqq.; K. E. A. Schmidt, Beiträge zur Geschichte der Grammatik, pp. 181 sqq. Prosody had nothing whatsoever to do with verse-making, although it was related to music.

[†] Vid. Waitz, Aristotelis Organon, vol. i. pp. 323 sq.

I Here came in all that we generally understand by Grammar. The whole of the first part of Lersch's Sprachphilosophie der Alten is devoted to the question of Analogy and Anomaly.

6°. Criticism* of poetical productions, which is the noblest part of grammatic art.

2. ΟΝ READING (ἀνάγνωσις).

Reading is the rendering of poetic or prose productions without stumbling or hesitancy. It must be done with due regard to expression, prosody, and pauses. Through the expression we learn the merit ($\hat{a}\rho \epsilon \tau \gamma$) of the piece; from the prosody, the art of the reader; and from the pauses, the meaning intended to be conveyed. In this way we read tragedy heroically, comedy conversationally, elegiacs thrillingly, epics sustainedly, lyric poetry musically, and dirges softly and plaintively. Any reading done without due observance of these rules degrades the merits of the poets and makes the habits of readers ridiculous.

3. ΟΝ ΤΟΝΕ (τόνος).

Tone; is the resonance of a voice endowed with harmony. It is heightened in the acute, balanced in the grave, and broken in the circumflex.

4. On Punctuation (στιγμή).§

There are three punctuation marks: the full stop, the semicolon, and the comma. The full stop denotes that the sense is complete; the semicolon is a sign of where to take breath; the comma shows that the sense is not yet complete, but that something further must be added.

5. Wherein does the full stop differ from the comma? (τίνε διαφέρει στιγμή ὑποστιγμής;)¶

In time. At the full stop the pause is long, at the comma, very short.

^{*} Such Criticism apparently did not include a discussion of the poetical merits of a piece (κρίνει δὲ τὰ ποιήματα οὐχ ὅτι καλά ἐστιν ἢ κακά· ποιητοῦ γὰρ ὰν εἰη τὰ τοιοῦτον.)

[†] Expression (ὑπόκρισις) is defined as being equivalent to μίμησις or Imitation.

[‡] Tone is what we usually call accent. The Latin accentus, however, formed in imitation of the Greek $\pi\rho\sigma\sigma\omega\delta ia$, was undoubtedly intended to have the same width of meaning as the latter. Vid. Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 190 sqq.

[§] On this whole question, vid. Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 506-570.

[|] These terms are hardly accurate; the sequel explains their meaning.

[¶] It will be seen that in practice Dionysios distinguishes only two punctuation marks, the $\sigma \tau \eta \gamma \eta \dot{\eta}$ $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \eta$ (semicolon) being really not one at all.

6. ΟΝ ΚΗΑΡΝΟΣΥ (βαψωδία).

A Rhapsody is a part of a poem including a certain (definite) argument. It is called a rhapsody, that is, rhabdody, because those who recited the Homeric poems were girt with a laurel branch ($\delta d\theta \partial \sigma_{5}$).*

7. ΟΝ ΕLEMENTS (στοιχεῖα).+

There are twenty-four letters from α to ω . They are called letters ($\gamma\rho\delta\mu\mu\alpha\tau\alpha$) from being formed of lines and scratches. For to write ($\gamma\rho\delta\psi\alpha$), among the ancients, meant to scratch ($\xi\dot{\nu}\sigma\alpha$), as in Homer:

νῖν δέ μ' ἐπιγράψας ταρσὸν ποδὸς εἴνχεαι αὐτως.

They are also called elements ($\sigma \tau \circ \iota \gamma \circ \iota \tilde{\iota} a$) from being in a certain series ($\sigma \tau \circ \iota \gamma \circ \iota \tilde{\iota}$) or arrangement.

Of these letters, seven are *Vowels*: α , ε , γ , ι o, v, and ω . They are called vowels $(\varphi\omega\nu'_1\varepsilon\nu\tau\alpha)$ because they form a complete sound $(\varphi\omega\nu'_1)$ by themselves. Of the vowels, two are long, η and ω ; two are short, ε and o; and three are doubtful, a, ι , v. They are called doubtful $^+$ because they may be either lengthened or shortened. Five of the vowels are prepositive, a, ε , γ , o, ω . They are called prepositive because, when placed before ι or v, they form a syllable, as $\alpha\iota$, $\alpha\nu$. Two are subjunctive, ι and v. l is sometimes prepositive to ι , as in $\mu\nu\bar{\iota}a$, $\delta\rho\pi\nu \iota a$, $\nu\bar{\iota}\delta\tau$, and the like. There are six diphthongs, $\alpha\iota$, $\alpha\nu$, $\varepsilon\iota$, $\varepsilon\nu$, $o\iota$, $o\nu$.

The remaining seventeen letters are *Consonants*, β , γ , δ , ζ , ϑ , x, λ , μ , ν , ξ , π , ρ , σ , τ , φ , χ , ψ . They are called consonants because by themselves they have no sound, but produce a sound only when they are combined with vowels.§ Of the

^{*} Cf. Grote, Hist. of Greece, vol. ii. p. 141, note; Wolf. Proleg., pp. 58 sqq. (Edit. Calvary); K. O. Müller, Hist. of Lit. of Ancient Greece,, pp. 33 sqq.

[†] On Στοιχείον, vid. Aristotle, Metaph. I. I (1026, b. 12); Bonitz, Aristotelis Metaph. pp. 225 sq.; Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 80 sqq., 126. Aristotle's definition of στοιχείον, as meaning a sound, is: "An element is an indivisible sound, not applicable, however, to every such sound, but only to those which are capable of entering into the formation of intelligible speech."—Poet. cap. xx. Cf. Steinthal, Gesch. der Sprachw. bei den Gr. und Röm., pp. 248 sq.

[‡] Δίχρονοι = of twofold time. Cf. Rossbach und Westphal, Metrik der Griech., vol. ii. pp. 66 sqq.

[§] Aristotle, Poetics, cap. xx., makes three divisions of sounds — τό τε φωνήεν καὶ τὸ ἡμίφωνον καὶ ἄφωνον — vowels, semivowels, and mutes. Cf. with the whole of Dionysios' classification, Schleicher, Compend. der verg. Grammatik der

φ to π-άλλά μοι είφ' ὅπη ἔσγες ὶὼν εὐεργέα νῆα:

χ to x — αὐτίχ' ο μέν χλαϊνάν τε γιτωνά τε εννυτ' ' Θουσσεύς.

θ to τ — ως έφαθ, οί δ'άρα πάντες αχην έγένοντο σιωπη.

Again, of the consonants, three are double, ζ , $\hat{\xi}$, ψ . They are called double because each one of them is composed of two consonants, ζ of ζ and \hat{o} , \dagger $\hat{\xi}$ of z and σ , ψ of π and σ . Four are unchangeable. They are called unchangeable because they do not change in the futures of verbs or the inflections of nouns. They are likewise called liquids. The final elements of masculine nouns, in the nominative case, singular number, are five, ν , $\hat{\xi}$, ρ , σ , ψ , as Liwv, $\text{Point}\hat{\xi}$, Néstaup, Hápiz, $\text{Hého}\psi$; of feminine nouns, eight, α , γ , ω , ν , $\hat{\xi}$, ρ , σ , ψ , as Moosa, Ehév, Kheiw, Yekôw, Ehé, Vi, Vii, $\text{$

8. On Syllables (συλλαδαί).+

A Syllable is properly the combination of a vowels with a

Indoger. Spr., pp. 54 sqq. et passim; Curtius, Grundzüge der griech Etymologie, pp. 85 sqq.; Max Müller,"Lectures, 2d Series, Lect. III.

[†] Cf. Aristotle, Metaph., A 9 (993^a 5), v 6 (1093^a 20); Kühner, Aûsführ. Gram. der Gr. Spr., vol. i. p. 55.

[‡] Cf. Aristotle, Poetics, cap. xx.; Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 126-180; Steinthal, Sprachw. bei den Gr. und Röm., p. 254.

[§] Or diphthong, evidently.

consonant or consonants, as $K\tilde{a}\rho$, $\beta o\tilde{v}\varsigma$. Improperly we speak of a syllable as composed of a single vowel, as \tilde{a} , $\tilde{\gamma}$.

9. On Long Syllables (μαχραὶ συλλαβαί).

A long syllable may come about in eight ways, three by nature and five by position*: by nature, when it is represented by the long elements, as $\tilde{\chi}_{\mu}\omega_{\zeta}$ —or when one of the doubtful elements is assumed as long, as $A\omega_{\zeta}$; by position, either when it ends in two consonants, as $\delta\lambda_{\zeta}$ —or when a short or shortened† vowel is followed by two consonants, as $\delta\rho_{\gamma}\delta_{\zeta}$ —or when it ends in a single consonant and the next syllable begins with a consonant, as $\tilde{\epsilon}\rho_{\gamma}\omega_{\gamma}$ —or when it is followed by a double consonant, as $\tilde{\epsilon}\omega_{\gamma}$ —or when it ends in a double consonant, as $\delta\pi\omega_{\zeta}$.

10. On Short Syllables (βραχεῖαι συλλαδαί).

A syllable becomes short in two ways, either when it contains a vowel naturally short, as $\beta\rho\dot{\epsilon}\varphi\sigma_{\varsigma}$ —or when it has a doubtful vowel assumed as short, as $\gamma \Lambda\rho_{\varsigma}$.

11. On Common Syllables (χοιναὶ συλλαβαί).

A syllable is common in three ways, either when it ends in a long vowel while the next syllable begins with a vowel,

as Οὐτί μοι αἰτίη ἐσσί· θεοί νύ μοι αἰτιοί εἰσιν—

or when a shortened vowel is followed by two consonants, whereof the latter is an unchangeable, while the former is by itself a mute, as

Πάτροκλέ μοι δειλή πλεϊστον κεχαρισμένε θυμφ-

or when, being short, it stands at the end of a part of speech and the next syllable begins with a vowel, as

Νέστορα δ' οὐκ έλαθεν ἱαχὴ πίνοντά περ ἔμπης.

^{*} Position (θέσις), in this connection, does not mean, as is generally supposed, place, but convention, arbitrary imposition, as opposed to nature (Θί ε). Vid. Lersch, Sprachphilosophie, Pt. I. p. 5; Rossbach und Westphal, Metrik der Griechen, vol. ii. p. 74. This shows the utter absurdity of the rule, laid down in so many Greek and Latin grammars, that a vowel followed by two consonants is long.

[†] A short vowel is either ε or o; a shortened vowel is a doubtful vowel (a, ι, v) assumed as short.

[‡] Cf. Hom. II., v. 31:

^{&#}x27;Αρες, "Αρες, βροτολοιγέ, μιαιφόνε, τειχεσιπλήτα.

12. ΟΝ ΤΗΕ WORD (λέξις).

A Word is the smallest part of an ordered sentence.*

13. On the Sentence (λόγος).†

A Sentence is combination of words, either in prose or in verse, making complete sense. There are eight parts of speech: Noun, Verb, Participle, Article, Pronoun, Preposition, Adverb, and Conjunction. The proper noun, as a species, is subordinate to the noun.

14. ON THE NOUN (ονομα).

A Noun is a declinable part of speech, signifying something either concrete or abstract (concrete, as stone; abstract, as education); common or proper (common, as man, horse; proper, as Socrates, Plato).§ It has five accidents: genders, species, forms, numbers, and cases.

There are three *Genders*, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. Some add to these two more, the common and the epicene—common, as man, horse; epicene, as swallow, eagle.

There are two *Species* of nouns, the primitive and the derivative. A primitive noun is one which is said according to original imposition, as $\gamma\tilde{\gamma}$ (earth); a derivative noun is one which derives its origin from another noun, as $\gamma a \omega \dot{\gamma} i o s$ (earthborn). There are seven classes of derivatives: Patronymics, Possessives, Comparatives, Diminutives, Nominals, Superlatives, and Verbals. A *Patronymic* is properly a noun formed from the name of a father, improperly a noun formed from the name of another ancestor, e.g., Achilleus is called both

^{*} Cf. Aristotle, Poetics, capp. xix.-xxii.; Waitz, Aristotelis Organon, vol. i. pp. 323 sq.; Steinthal, Gesch. des Sprachwiss., pp. 285 sqq.; J. Vahlen, Aristoteles Lehre von der Rangfolge der Theile der Tragædie, in Symbola Philologorum Bonnensium, pp. 180 sqq.

[†] Aristotle (De Interp., cap. iv.) defines hoyog as "significant sound, whereof any one part is separately significant as an expression, but not as an affirmation." Cf. Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 218 sqq.; Steinthal, Sprachwiss. bei den Gr. und Röm., pp. 568 sqq.; Lersch, Sprachphilosophie, Pt. II., passim.

[‡] Directed against the Stoics, who made the $\pi\rho\sigma\sigma\eta\gamma\rho\rho\dot{\iota}a$ a distinct part of speech.

[§] Aristotle (*De Interp.*, cap. ii.) says: "A noun is a sound significant according to convention (θέσις = position), timeless, whereof no part is separately significant." Cf. Schmidt, *Beiträge*, p. 227 sqq.

Peleides and Aiakides. Of masculine patronymics there are three forms, one in $\partial \eta \zeta$, one in $\omega \nu$, and one in $d\partial \omega \zeta$ —e.g. Atreion, Atreides, and the form peculiar to the Æolians, Hyrradios. (Pittakos was the son of Hyrras.) Of feminine patronymics there are likewise three forms, one in α , as Priamis; one in ας, as Pelias; one in νη, as Adrastinê. From the names of mothers, Homer forms no species of patronymics; later authors do. A Possessive is a noun which denotes possession and includes the possessor, as Νηλήιωι ἔπποι (Neleian mares), Έχτόρεος γιτών (Hektorean robe), Πλατωνιχόν βιβλίον (Platonic book). A Comparative is a noun making a comparison of one individual with another individual of the same genus, e.g. Achilleus braver than Aias; or of one individual with many of a different genus, e.g. Achilleus braver than the Trojans. Of comparatives there are three forms, one in τερος, as δξύτερος, βραδύτερος; one in ων pure, as βελτίων, χαλλίων; one in σων, as χρείσσων, ήσσων. A Superlative is a noun used to express the superiority of one individual over many in a comparison. There are two forms of it, one in τατος, as δξύτατος, βραδύτατος; and one in στος, as μέγιστος, ἄριστος. Α Diminutive is a noun expressing a diminution of the primitive word without comparison, as ανθρωπίσχος (mannikin), λίθαξ (stonelet), μειραχύλλιον (stripling). A Nominal is a word formed alongside a noun, or as from a noun, as Theon, Tryphon. A Verbal is a noun derived from a verb, as Philemon, Noëmon.

There are three *Forms* of nouns, simple, compound, and super-compound—simple, as Memnon; compound, as Agamemnon; super-compound, as Agamemnonides, Philippides. Of compounds there are four kinds; 1°. those compounded of two complete words, as Cheirisophos; 2°. those compounded of two incomplete words, as Sophokles; 3°. those compounded of an incomplete and a complete word, as Philodemos; and 4°. those compounded of a complete word and an incomplete, as Periklês.

There are three *Numbers*, singular, dual, and plural; singular, as " $\theta\mu\eta\rho\sigma$ (Homer); dual, as $\tau\dot{\omega}$ " $\theta\mu\eta\rho\sigma$ (both Homers); plural, as " $\theta\mu\eta\rho\sigma$ (Homers). There are some singular designations used of plural objects, as $\delta\tilde{\eta}\mu\sigma$ (people), $\chi\sigma\dot{\sigma}$ (chorus); and plural designations used of singular and dual

objects — of singular, as $^{\prime}\Lambda\partial\tilde{\eta}\gamma\omega$, $\theta\tilde{\eta}\delta\omega$ (Athens, Thebes) — of dual, as $d\mu\varphi\phi\tau\epsilon\rho\omega$ (both).

There are five *Cases*, the right, the generic,* the dative, the accusative, and the vocative. The right case is called also the nominative and the direct; the generic, the possessive, and the patrial; the dative, the injunctive; while the accusative is named from *cause*, and the vocative is called the allocutive.

The following terms, expressive of accidents belonging to the noun, are also called *Species:* proper, appellative, adjective, relative, quasi-relative, homonym, synonym, pheronym, dionym, eponym, national, interrogative, indefinite, anaphoric (also called assimilative, demonstrative, and retributive), collective, distributive, inclusive, onomatopoetic, general, special, ordinal, numeral, participative, independent.

A Proper noun is one signifying a peculiar substance, t as Homer, Sokrates. An Appellative is one that signifies a common substance, as man, horse. An Adjective noun is one that is applied homonymously; to proper or appellative nouns, and signifies either praise or blame. It is derived from three sources, from the soul, the body, and external things: from the soul, as sage, licentious; from the body, as swift, slow; from external things, as rich, poor. A Relative noun is such as father, son, friend, right (hand). A quasi-Relative is such as night, day, death, life. A Homonym is a noun predicated homonymously of many things, as of proper nouns, e.g. Telamonian Aias, Oilean Aias; of aplative nouns, as sea-mouse, land-mouse. A Synonym is a noun which, by several designations, signifies the same thing, as glaive, sword, bludgeon, blade, brand. A Pheronym is a name given from some accident, as Tisamenos and Megapenthes. A Dionym is a couple of names applied to the same proper noun, as Alexander and Paris, without there being any reciprocity in their signification; e.g., if one is Alexan-

^{*} Tevush, on no account to be rendered by genitivus (genitive), as the Romans did. Vid. Max Müller, Lectures, 1st Series, p. 180 sq. (Eng. edit.); Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 320 sqq.

[†] Cf. Aristotle, Categ., cap. v.

[‡] Cf. Aristotle, Categ., cap. i.: "Things which have a common name, but whereof the notions corresponding to that name are different, are said to be homonymous."

der, it does not follow that he is Paris. An Eponym (also called Dionym) is a noun which, along with another proper noun, is applied to one object, as Poseidon is called Enosichthon, and Apollo, Phebos. A National name is one showing to what nation an individual belongs, as Phrygian, Galatian. An Interrogative (also called an Inquisitive) is so called from being employed in interrogations, as $\tau i \zeta$; (who?)— $\pi o \tilde{\iota} o \zeta$; (of what sort?)— $\pi o \sigma o \zeta$; (how great?) πηλίχος: (how old?) An Indefinite is a noun placed in opposition to an Interrogative, as ὅστις (whosoever), ὁποῖος (of whatever sort), όπόσος (however great), όπηλίχος (of whatever age). An Anaphoric noun (called also an Assimilative, a Demonstrative, or an Attributive) is one signifying similarity, as τοιούτος (as great), τηλιχούτος (as old), τοιούτος (such). A Collective noun is one which, in the singular number, signifies a multitude, e.g. δημος (people), γορός (chorus), ὄχλος (crowd). A Distributive noun is one having a relation to one out of two or more, as έτερος (the other), έχάτερος (each), εχαστος (every one). An Inclusive noun is one that shows what is contained in it, as δαφνών (laurel-grove), παρθενών (virgin's abode). An Onomatopoetic noun is one formed imitatively from the peculiarities of sounds, as φλοῖσβος (dashing), δοίζος (whistling), δουμαγδός (rattle). A General noun is one that can be divided into a number of species, as animal, plant. A Special noun is one of those into which a genus is divided, e.g. ox, horse; vine, olive. An Ordinal is a noun showing order, as first, second, third. A Numeral is a noun signifying number, as one, two, three. A Participative is a noun partaking of a certain substance, as golden, silvern. An Independent noun is one which is thought by itself, as God, Reason.

The Dispositions of the noun are two, Activity and Passivity; Activity, as the judge, the judging; Passivity, as the judgeable, the judged.

15. On the Verb $(\delta \tilde{\eta} \mu a)$.*

A Verb is an indeclinable word, indicating time, person

^{*} Aristotle (De Interp., cap. iii.) says: "A Verb is that which adds a timespecification, of which no part separately signifies anything, and which is always asserted of something else." Cf. Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 344 sqq.; Harris, Hermes, Book I. cap. 6.

and number, and showing activity or passivity. The verb has eight accidents: Moods, Dispositions (voices!), Species, Forms, Numbers, Tenses, Persons, Conjugations. There are five Moods: Indicative, Imperative, Optative, Subjunctive, and Infinitive. There are three Dispositions*: Activity, Passivity, and Mediality—Activity, as τύπτω (I strike): Passivity. as τύπτομαι (I am struck); Mediality, marking partly activity and partly passivity, as πέποιθα (I trust), διέφθορα (I waste). ἐποιησάμην (I became), ἐγραψάμην (I registered). There are two Species: Primitive and Derivative - Primitive, as ἀρδω: Derivative, as ἀρδεύω. There are three Forms: Simple, Compound, and Super-Compound-Simple, as goova; Compound, as καταφρονώ; Super-Compound, as αντιγονίζω (I Antigonize), φιλιππίζω (I Philippize). There are three Numbers: Singular, Dual, and Plural—Singular, as τύπτω; Dual, as τύπτετον; Plural, as τύπτομεν. There are three Persons: First, Second. and Third. The First is the person from whom the assertion is; the Second, the one to whom it is; and the Third, the one concerning whom it is. There are three Tenses: Present. Past, Future. Of these, the Past has four sub-species - Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect, and Agrist-which stand in three respective relations: the Present is related to the Imperfect. the Perfect to the Pluperfect, and the Aorist to the Future.

16. ΟΝ CONJUGATION (συζυγία).

Conjugation is the consecutive inflection of Verbs. Of Barytone Verbs there are six conjugations, of which the First is characterized by δ , φ , π , or $\pi\tau$, as $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} i \delta \omega$, $\gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \varphi \omega$, $\tau \dot{\epsilon} \rho \pi \omega$, $z \dot{\sigma} \pi \omega$; the Second by γ , z, γ , or $z\tau$, as $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$, $\pi \lambda \dot{\epsilon} z \omega$, $\tau \rho \dot{\epsilon} \chi \omega$, $\tau \dot{\epsilon} z \omega$; the Third by δ , δ , or τ , as $\check{\epsilon} \delta \omega$, $\pi \lambda \dot{\gamma} \partial \omega$, $\delta \nu \dot{\tau} z \omega$; the Fourth by ζ or $\sigma \sigma$, as $\varphi \rho \dot{\alpha} \zeta \omega$, $\nu \dot{\nu} \sigma \sigma \omega$, $\delta \rho \dot{\nu} \sigma \sigma \omega$; the Fifth by the four unchangeables, λ , μ , ν , ρ , as $\pi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$, $\nu \dot{\epsilon} \mu \omega$; and the Sixth by a pure, as $i \pi \pi \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\nu} \omega$, $\pi \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \omega$, $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\nu} \omega$, $\delta z \dot{\nu} \omega$. Some also introduce a Seventh Conjugation, characterized by $\dot{\epsilon}$ and $\dot{\psi}$, as $\delta \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} \omega$, $\check{\epsilon} \psi \omega$.

17. On Circumflexed Verbs (περισπώμενα).

Of Circumflexed Verbs there are three Conjugations, of which the First is characterized in the second and third persons by the diphthong ε_{ℓ} , as $\nu o \tilde{\omega}$, $\nu o \varepsilon \tilde{\iota} \zeta$, $\nu o \varepsilon \tilde{\iota}$; the Second by

^{*} Διάθεσις, the word which Roman stupidity rendered by Vox (voice).

the diphthong φ , as $\delta o \tilde{\omega}$, $\delta o \tilde{\varphi} \zeta$, $\delta o \tilde{\varphi}$ (the ι being added in writing,* but not pronounced); and the Third by the diphthong ω , as $\chi \rho \nu \sigma \tilde{\omega}$, $\chi \rho \nu \sigma \sigma \tilde{\zeta}$, $\chi \rho \nu \sigma \sigma \tilde{\zeta}$.

18. ΟΝ VERBS ΙΝ μι (τὰ εἰς μι).

Of Verbs ending in μ there are four conjugations, of which the First is characterized from the first of the Circumflexed Conjugations, as from $\tau\iota\partial\tilde{\omega}$ comes $\tau\iota\partial\eta\mu$; the Second from the second, as from $\delta\sigma\tau\tilde{\omega}$, $\delta\sigma\tau\eta\mu$; the Third from the third, as from $\delta\iota\partial\tilde{\omega}$, $\delta\iota\partial\omega\mu$; and the Fourth from the sixth of the Barytone Conjugations, as from $\pi\eta\gamma\nu\delta\omega$, $\pi\eta\gamma\nu\nu\mu$.

19. ΟΝ ΤΗΕ ΡΑΚΤΙCIPLE (μετοχή).

A Participle is a word partaking of the nature both of nouns and verbs. It has all the accidents which belong to nouns as well as those which belong to verbs, except mood and person.

20. On the Article ($\check{\alpha}\rho\vartheta\rho\sigma\nu$).

An Article is a declinable part of speech prefixed or subjoined to the various cases of nouns, taking, when prefixed, the form $\dot{\phi}$, and, when subjoined, the form $\ddot{\phi}\xi$.† It has three accidents: Gender, Number, and Case. The Genders are three, as $\dot{\phi}$ $\pi o \iota \tau \gamma \tau \dot{\zeta} \xi$, $\dot{\gamma}$ $\pi o \iota \iota \gamma \sigma \iota \xi$, $\tau \dot{\phi}$ $\pi o \iota \iota \gamma \mu a$. The Numbers are three: Singular, Dual, and Plural — Singular, as $\dot{\phi}$, $\dot{\gamma}$, $\dot{\tau}$ $\dot{\phi}$; Dual, as $\tau \dot{\phi}$, $\tau \dot{\phi}$; Plural, as $\dot{\sigma}$, $\dot{\alpha}$; $\tau \dot{\tau}$. The Cases are— $\dot{\phi}$, $\tau o \dot{\tau}$, $\tau \dot{\phi}$

21. On the Pronoun (ἀντωνυμία.)*

A Pronoun is a word assumed instead of a noun, and indicating definite persons. It has six accidents: Person, Gender, Number, Case, Form, and Species.

^{*} It was not subscribed till the twelfth century of our era. Vid. Kühner, Ausführ. Gram. der Gr. Spr., vol. i. p. 59, note (2d edit.) Chæroboskos (Bekker, Anec. Græca, vol. p. 1186) says: "It must be understood that grammarians, whose attention is directed to pronuciation, say that the ι is unpronounced when it is found with (follows) a long, η , or ω , * * * * ; but musicians, who stickle for accuracy, say that it is pronounced, but is not distinctly heard on account of the length of the [preceding] long vowels."

[†] The ancient ἀρθρον included both the article and the relative pronoun. Cf. Lersch. Sprachphilosophie, Pt. II. pp. 132 sqq.; Steinthal, Sprachw. bei den Gr. und Röm., pp. 660 sqq.; Harris, Hermes, Bk. II., cap. 1.

[‡] Lersch, Pt. II. passim; Steinthal, pp. 663 sqq.; Harris, Hermes, Bk. I. cap. v.

22. On Primitive Pronouns.

The Persons of the Primitive Pronouns are ἐνώ, σύ, ἴ; those of the Derivative Pronouns, ἐμός, σός, ὅς. The Genders of the Primitive Pronouns are not expressed in speech, but by the indication which they make, as ἐγώ (I), whereas the Genders of the Derivatives are expressed in speech, as ὁ ἐμός, ή ἐμή, τὸ ἐμόν. The Numbers of the Primitives are—Singular, έγω, σύ, ἴ; Dual, νῶι, σφωι; Plural, ἡμεῖς, ὁμεῖς, σφεῖς; those of the Derivatives—Singular, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho}$; Dual, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \rho}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$ Plural, ¿μοί, σοί, οΐ. The Cases of the Primitives are—Direct. έγώ, σύ, ἴ; Generic, ἐμοῦ, σοῦ, οὖ; Dative, ἐμοί, σοί, οἶ; Accusative, $\hat{\epsilon}\mu\hat{\epsilon}$, $\sigma\hat{\epsilon}$, $\tilde{\epsilon}$; Vocative, $\sigma\hat{\nu}$: those of the Derivatives are $\tilde{\epsilon}\mu\dot{o}\varsigma$, $\sigma\dot{o}\varsigma$, $\tilde{o}\varsigma$; $\tilde{\epsilon}\mu\tilde{o}\tilde{v}$, $\sigma\tilde{o}\tilde{v}$, $o\tilde{o}$; $\tilde{\epsilon}\mu\tilde{\omega}$, $\sigma\tilde{\omega}$, $\tilde{\omega}$; $\tilde{\epsilon}\mu\dot{o}\nu$, $\sigma\dot{o}\nu$, $\tilde{o}\nu$. There are two Forms: Simple and Compound — Simple, ἐμοῦ, σοῦ, ού: Compound, ἐμαυτοῦ, σαυτοῦ, ἑαυτοῦ. There are two Species, inasmuch as some are Primitive, as ἐγώ, σύ, ἔ, and others Derivative, as are all the Possessives, which are also called Bi-personals. They are thus derived—from Singulars, those designating one possessor, as ἐμοῦ, ἐμός; from Duals, those designating two, as from νῶί, νωίτερος; from Plurals, those designating many, as from ημεῖς, ημέτερος. Of the Pronouns, some are [used] without the article and some with it—without the article, as $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \dot{\phi}$; with the article, as $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \frac{\partial \mu \dot{\phi}}{\partial r}$.

23. ΟΝ PREPOSITIONS (πρόθεσις).*

A Preposition is a word placed before any of the parts of speech, both in Composition and in Syntax. The number of Prepositions is eighteen, whereof six are monosyllabic, $\grave{\epsilon}\nu$, $\epsilon\grave{\epsilon}\zeta$, $\pi\rho\acute{o}$, $\pi\rho\acute{o}\zeta$, $\sigma\acute{\nu}\nu$ —which are incapable of anastrophé—and twelve are dissyllabic, $\grave{a}\nu\acute{a}$, $\varkappa\alpha\tau\acute{a}$, $\delta\imath\acute{a}$, $\mu\epsilon\tau\acute{a}$, $\pi\alpha\rho\acute{a}$, $\delta\nu\tau\acute{e}$, $\delta\pi\acute{e}$, $\delta\mu\varphi\acute{e}$, $\delta\pi\acute{o}$, $\delta\pi\acute{o}$, $\delta\pi\acute{e}$, $\delta\pi\acute{$

24. ΟΝ ΤΗΕ ΑDVERB (ἐπίρδημα).+

An Adverb is an indeclinable part of speech, said of a verb or added to a verb. Of the Adverbs, some are Simple, and others Compound—Simple, as $\pi d\lambda \alpha z$; Compound, as $\pi \rho \delta \pi a \lambda \alpha z$. Some are indicative of time, as $\nu \delta \nu \nu$, $\tau \delta \tau \varepsilon$, $\alpha \delta \delta \iota \zeta$: to these we

^{*} Lersch, passim; Steinthal, 671 sqq.; Harris, Hermes, Bk. II. cap. iii.

[†] Lersch, passim; Steinthal, 672; Harris, Hermes, Bk. I. cap. xi.; Schmidt, Beiträge, pp. 485 sqq.

must subordinate as species those that connote particular times or seasons, as σήμερον, αύριον, τόφρα, τέως, πηνίχα. Some indicate manner, as χαλῶς, σοφῶς, δυνατῶς; some, quality, as πύξ, λάξ, βοτρυδόν, διεληδόν; some, quantity, as πολλάκις, δλιγάχις, μυριάχις; some, number, as δίς, τρίς, τετράχις; some, place, as ἀνω, κάτω—of these there are three kinds, those signifying in a place, those signifying to a place, and those signifying from a place, as οίχοι, οίχαδε, οίχοθεν. Some Adverbs signify a wish, as είθε, αίθε, άβαλε; some express horror, as παπαί, ἰού, φεῦ; some, denial or negation, as οὔ, οὐγί, οὐ δῆτα, οὐδαμῶς; some, agreement, as ναί, ναίγι; some, prohibition, as μή, μη δήτα, μηδαμώς; some, comparison or similarity, as ώς, ωσπερ, ήθτε, καθά, καθάτερ; some, surprise, as βαβαί; some, probability, as ἴσως, τάγα, τυγόν; some, order, as έξης, ἐφεξης, γωρίς: some congregation, as ἄρδην, διμα, ήλιθα; some, command, as εία, άγε, φέρε; some, comparison, as μαλλον, ήττον; some, interrogation, as $\pi \dot{\theta} \dot{\theta} \epsilon \nu$, $\pi \dot{\theta} \dot{\theta}$, $\pi \eta \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} \alpha$, $\pi \ddot{\omega} \zeta$; some, vehemence, as σφόδρα, ἄγαν, πάνυ, μάλιστα; some, coincidence, as άμα, όμου, άμυδις; some are deprecative, as μά; some are asseverative, as νή; some are positive, as άγνωστέον, γραπτέον, πλευστέον; some express ratification, as δηλαδή; and some enthusiasm, as εὐοῖ, εὐάν.

25. ΟΝ CONJUNCTIONS (σύνδεσμος).*

A Conjunction is a word binding together a thought in order and filling up the hiatuses of speech. Of conjunctions, some are copulative, some disjunctive, some conjunctive, some preter-conjunctive, some causative, some dubitative, come conclusive, and some expletive. Copulative Conjunctions are those which bind together a discourse which flows on indefinitely: they are these, $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$, $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$, $\tau \dot{\epsilon}$, $\alpha \dot{\iota}$, $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \dot{\alpha}$, $\dot{\gamma} \mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$, $\dot{\gamma} \delta \dot{\epsilon}$, $\dot{\alpha} \dot{\epsilon} d\rho$, $\dot{\alpha} \dot{\nu} d\rho$, $\dot{\gamma} \tau \alpha \dot{\alpha}$. Disjunctive Conjunctions are those which bind the phrase more firmly together, and disjoin the facts expressed: they are these, $\dot{\gamma}$, $\dot{\gamma} \tau \alpha \dot{\alpha}$, $\dot{\gamma} \dot{\epsilon}$. Conjunctive Conjunctions are those which do not indicate any actual existence, but signify sequence: they are these, $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon}$, $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \rho$, $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} \partial \dot{\gamma}$, $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} \partial \dot{\gamma} \pi \epsilon \rho$. The Prater-conjunctives are those which, along with actual existence, show also order: they are these, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon}$, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \rho$, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \dot{\alpha} \rho$, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \dot{\epsilon} \rho$, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \dot{\epsilon$

^{*} Aristotle, Poet., cap. xx.; Lersch, passim; Steinthal, pp. 673 sqq.; Harris. Hermes, Bk. II. cap. ii.

ἐπειδήπερ. Causatives are those which are taken to express cause: they are these, $\tilde{\iota}\nu a$, $\delta \varphi \rho a$, $\tilde{\sigma}\pi \omega \zeta$, $\tilde{\varepsilon}\nu \varepsilon x a$, $\delta \tau \iota$, $\delta \iota \dot{o}$, $\delta \iota \dot{o}\tau \iota$, $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}$, $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}$ and $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}$ are these, $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}$ are those which we are wont to use when we are in doubt; they are these, $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}\rho a$, $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}\tau \dot{o}$ and $\epsilon \iota \dot{o}\tau \dot{o}$





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